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Chapter 1

Background

1.1 Anatomy of the spinal cord

The spinal cord (SC) is the part of the central nervous system (CNS) that connects the brain and peripheral nervous system. It controls the voluntary movement of limbs and trunk, receives sensory information from these regions and monitors and coordinates the internal organ function in thorax, abdomen and pelvis.

The SC is protected by the vertebral column and is located inside the vertebral canal. In cross-section, the cord can be divided in two regions: (i) the peripheral region containing neuronal white matter tracts. (ii) the grey, butterfly-shaped central region made up of nerve cell bodies. This gray matter is centered around the central canal, containing cerebro-spinal fluid (CSF).

White matter architecture of the spinal cord

The white matter of the SC consists mostly of longitudinally running axons and glial cells. White matter axons are organized hierarchically grouped in bundles, tracts and pathways. Bundles of neighboring white matter axons that share similar features are called fibre bundles. A tract is formed by fibre bundles with same origin, course, termination and function. Multiple tracts with the same function form a pathway.

Ascending tracts

Figure 1.1 illustrates the location of the major ascending pathways in the SC. These sensory tracts, arise either from cells of spinal ganglia in the white matter of the SC or from intrinsic neurons within the gray matter that receive primary sensory input. The dorsal column hold the largest ascending tracts and are associated with tactile, pressure, and kinesthetic sense connecting with sensory areas of the cerebral cortex. Fibres of the spinothalamic tracts ascend in the lateral ventral part of the cord and convey signals related to pain and thermal sense. The anterior spinothalamic tract arises more anteriorly in the SC; conveying impulses related to light touch. At brain level the two spinothalamic tracts tend to merge and cannot be distinguished as separate entities. Anterior

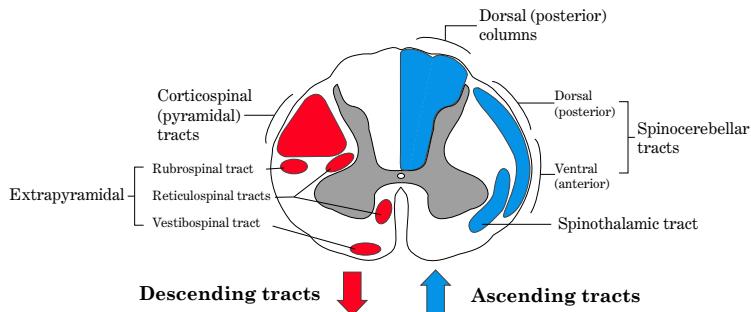


Figure 1.1: Illustration of the major ascending and descending fibre pathways of the SC (adapted from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Spinal_cord).

and posterior spinocerebellar tracts are involved in automatic muscle tone regulation. These tracts ascend peripherally in the dorsal and ventral margins of the cord.

Descending tracts

Tracts descending to the SC as illustrated in Figure 1.1 are concerned modulation of ascending sensory signals and are associated with voluntary motor function such as muscle tone and reflexes. The largest and most important, the corticospinal tract (CST), originates in broad regions of the cerebral cortex and descents in the lateral dorsal part SC white matter. Smaller descending tracts like the rubrospinal tract, the vestibulospinal tract, and the reticulospinal tract originate in small and diffuse regions of the midbrain, pons, and medulla and descend ventrally and laterally.

1.2 Principles of MRI

Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI) is a non-invasive imaging method widely used in medicine. MRI is free of gamma-radiation (unlike CT or X-ray methods), which makes it one of the major tools for application in neuroimaging. MRI can describe tissue in terms of many different properties such as relaxation, density, and diffusion. Specifically, in this thesis our main interest is in the sensitivity of MRI to the molecular motion of water molecules experiments to infer information about the microscopic tissue morphology. A full account of MRI theory is beyond the scope of this work chapter and can be found elsewhere (see e.g. in ??). However, a brief overview about the principles of magnetic resonance and MRI is given below.

Magnetic resonance

Nuclear magnetic resonance is a phenomenon that occurs when an elements with a non-zero magnetic moment (possessing an odd number of electrons or neutrons) reacts with an external magnetic field. Hydrogen (^1H) is such an element, and is most commonly used in MRI due to its abundance in the human

body. When such an element is placed in a magnetic field, its nuclear spin will begin to precess with a frequency governed by the equation:

$$\omega = \gamma \cdot B_0 \quad (1.1)$$

where ω is the Larmor frequency, γ is the nucleus specific gyromagnetic ratio, and B_0 is the magnetic field strength. When a radio-frequency (RF) pulse is applied perpendicular to the B_0 field, with a frequency equal to the Larmor frequency (i.e. the resonance frequency) the magnetic proton spins tilt towards the transverse plane. Once the RF pulse is removed, the nuclei realign themselves again parallel to the main magnetic field. In MR terms the application of the RF pulse is called excitation and the following return to equilibrium is referred to as relaxation. The relaxation process is accompanied a loss of energy by the protons, which can be picked up by a receiving RF coil. The received signal is referred to as the Free induction decay (FID) signal. Figure 1.2 illustrates this process.

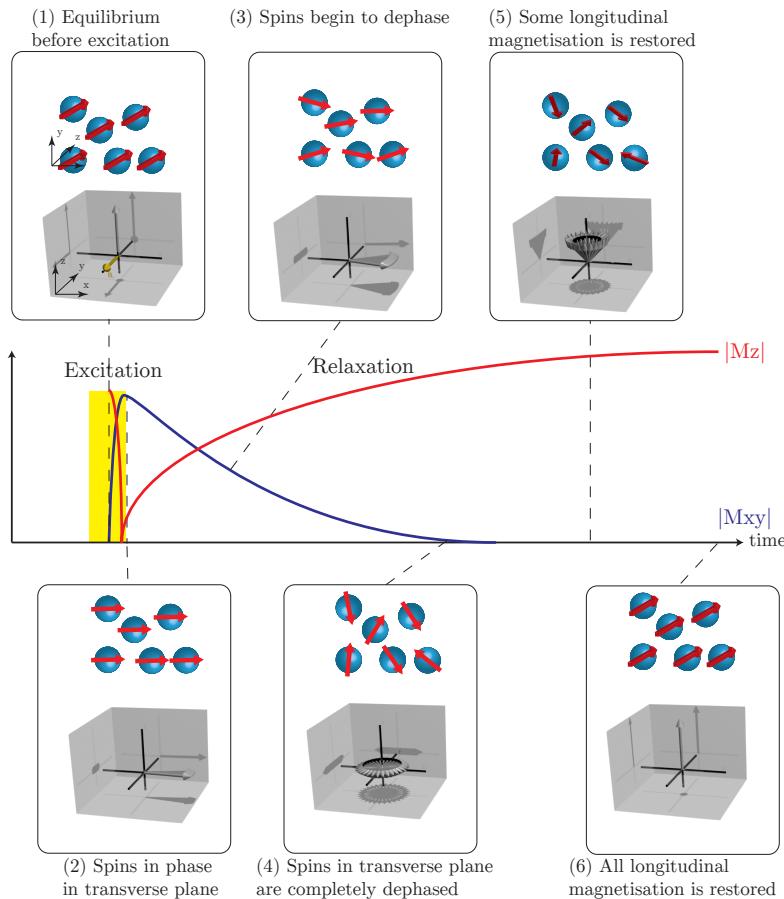


Figure 1.2: Simplified illustration of spins during different steps of the FID signal formation after a 90° RF pulse is applied. Some figures were created using the SpinBench software (Overall & Pauly, 2007).

The development of the net magnetisation vector is characterized by two time constants T1 and T2 that are defined as:

- T1 is the longitudinal relaxation time, which describes how long it takes for the net magnetisation to return to the longitudinal equilibrium. Formally, the T1 constant relates to the longitudinal component of the magnetisation $M_z(t)$ at time t after excitation by the formula:

$$M_z(t) = M_0 \cdot (1 - \exp(-t/T1)), \quad (1.2)$$

with M_0 (the proton density) being the total magnetisation, which is proportional to the total number of excited spins.

- T2 is the transverse relaxation time, i.e. it describes the time it takes for the FID signal to decay due to randomly fluctuating internal magnetic fields caused by spin-spin interactions in the substance. This causes the spins to get out of phase and the transverse magnetization (and induced signal) is lost exponentially. Formally, the signal development of the transverse magnetisation $M_{xy}(t)$ at time t after excitation is described by:

$$M_{xy}(t) = M_0 \cdot \exp(-t/T2), \quad (1.3)$$

In a non-ideal magnetic field, transverse magnetisation is also lost due to inhomogeneities in the B_0 field, causing additional signal loss. In this case we distinguish between the T2 effect as the spin-spin interactions alone, and the T2* effect as the signal loss due both spin-spin relaxation and B_0 inhomogeneities.

Usually the transverse magnetization decays more rapidly than it takes for the magnetisation to return to the longitudinal equilibrium. Both T1 and T2 are specific to the macromolecular environment of the protons and therefore are specific for different types of tissue, e.g. for different tissue types within the live human brain (gray matter (GM) T1/T2 = 2000/100 ms, white matter (WM) T1/T2 = 1100/70 ms at 3T magnetic field strength (Stanisz et al., 2005)).

Spin-echo sequence

The spin echo (SE) sequence is the central pulse sequence that is used in all experiments we present in this dissertation. Figure 1.3 illustrates the layout and signal development of the SE experiment. The SE sequence starts with a 90° (P90) excitation pulse that flips magnetization in the transverse plane, followed by a 180° RF pulse (P180) after time TE/2 and the signal readout after another TE/2, producing an echo at time TE. The P180 inversion pulse will reverse the demagnetization by field inhomogeneities so that the contrast is mainly driven by spin-spin relaxation (T2). When TE is sufficiently small compared to the transverse relaxation time T1 of the sample, normally taken care by long repetitions times ($TR > 5 \times T1$), the obtained signal is only dependent on T2 and is called T2-weighted (T2w).

Gradients and Image formation

A magnetic gradient field $\mathbf{G} = (G_x, G_y, G_z)$ is a small spatially varying magnetic field, which is superimposed on the static magnetic field \mathbf{B}_0 and alters the spin

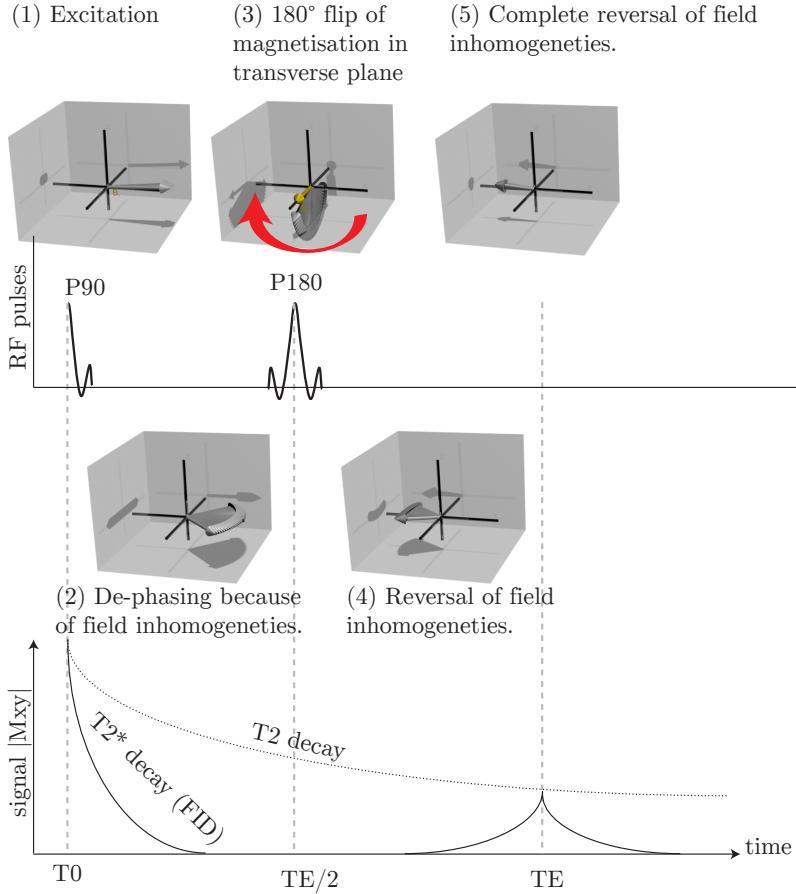


Figure 1.3: Simplified illustration of spins during different steps of the FID signal formation after a 90° RF pulse is applied. Some figures were created using the SpinBench software (Overall & Pauly, 2007).

frequency at a given position R as follows:

$$\omega(R) = \omega_0 + \gamma \cdot \mathbf{G}(t) \mathbf{R}(t) \quad (1.4)$$

Most fundamentally, gradient fields are used to spatially encode the signal to allow the formation of an image. As an example we will discuss here the most common 2D slice encoded spin-echo imaging sequence, which is used in all our experiments. Figure 1.4 illustrates such a simple imaging SE pulse sequence. First, the slice selection gradient G_{slice} is applied during the excitation RF pulse, which results in only the excitation of protons that precess with frequencies within the range of the excitation RF pulse.

The two gradients G_{read} and G_{phase} are orthogonal to G_{slice} and provides the spatial encoding within the excited slice. The phase encoding gradient G_{phase} adds a phase shift to the spin frequency of the slice-selected magnetization, which encodes location in the direction. During the spin echo at TE, the G_{read} gradient is applied, making the resonant frequency of the nuclear magnetiza-

tion vary with its location in the read-out direction. The signal is sampled k_x times (typically between 128 and 512 k_x samples are taken). After waiting the repetition time (TR) for the longitudinal magnetisation to restore, the whole sequence is repeated with a different phase-encoding gradient. After k_y phase encoding steps, the data is completely spatially encoded by means of frequency and phase. Typically also between 128 and 512 k_y encoding steps are acquired. This 2-dimensional $k_x \times k_y$ frequency matrix is then reconstructed into an image using the Fourier Transform (Ljunggren, 1983; Twieg, 1983).

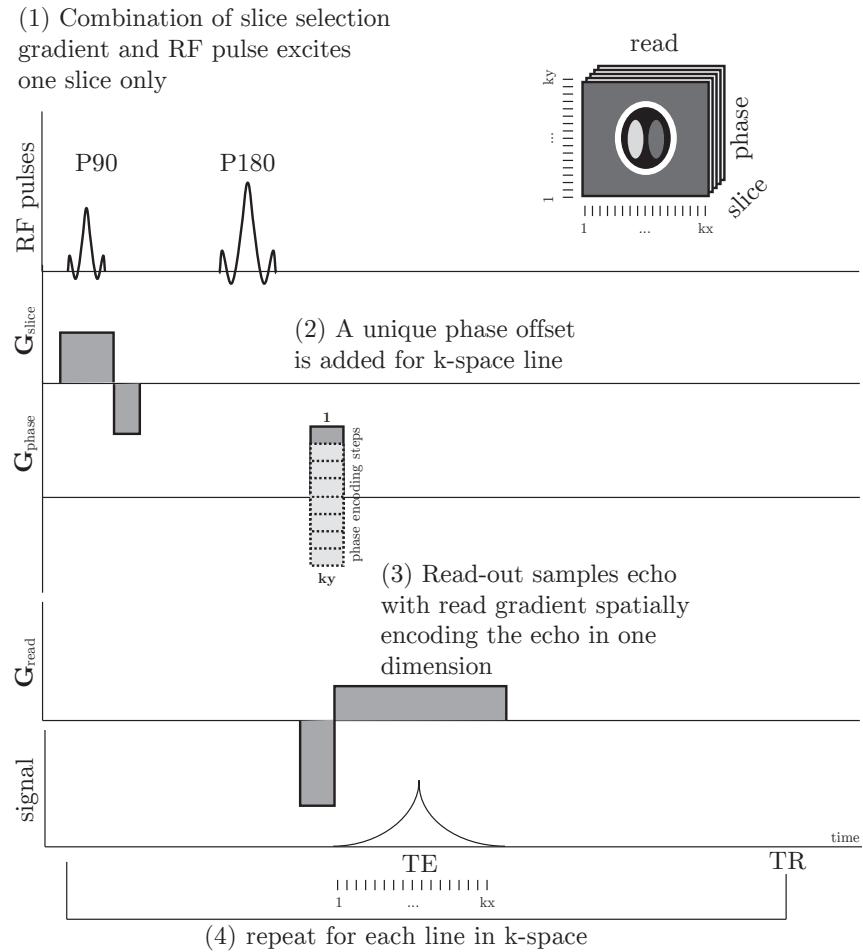


Figure 1.4: Spatial encoding by different gradient pulses during a 2D spin echo sequence.

1.3 Principles of Diffusion MRI

Diffusion MRI captures the average diffusion of water molecules, which probes the structure of the biological tissue at scales much smaller than the imaging resolution. The diffusion of water molecules is Brownian under normal unhindered

conditions, but in fibrous structure such as white matter, water molecules tend to diffusion along fibers. Due to this physical phenomenon, diffusion MRI is able to obtain information about the neural architecture *in-vivo*. In the following section we will briefly review the principles of diffusion and its effect on the MRI signal.

1.3.1 Brownian motion

At a microscopic scale, water molecules freely move and collide with each other in an homogeneous medium according to Brownian motion (Brown, 1828). At a macroscopic scale, this phenomenon yields a diffusion process. In the simplest case of pure molecules motion in the absence of any impeding barriers, the diffusion process can be simply be characterised by the diffusion coefficient d (Fick, 1855). In an isotropic and homogeneous medium, the mean displacement after a given time t is simply related to the diffusion coefficient d by Einstein's formula, which in 3-d space, is:

$$d = 6 \cdot \langle R^2 \rangle \cdot t \quad (1.5)$$

where, $\langle \dots \rangle$ denotes the ensemble average and $R = r - r_0$ is the displacement vector between the original position r_0 of a particle and the position r after the diffusion time t .

1.3.2 Free, hindered and restricted diffusion in biological tissue

In the simplest case, free diffusion (or unrestricted diffusion) is exactly described by the pure Brownian motion of water, i.e. molecules diffusing freely in all directions in the absence of any boundaries. In reality, free diffusion is rarely encountered in a biological tissue sample. Instead, the presence of restricting barriers, such as cell walls, membranes or axonal myelin sheaths impede the motion of the water molecules and alters their displacement pattern. In this case, the diffusion pattern is not only influenced by the diffusivity of the medium but more importantly informs about the characteristics of the surrounding environment on the scale of the mean displacement.

The observed effects on the diffusion MR signal can be quite diverse, depending on type and location of barriers within the sample. Figure 1.5 illustrates different diffusion environments and their effect on the root mean squared displacement (RMSD) of molecules. It is helpful to further distinguish two different motion pattern in the presence of barriers as restricted and hindered diffusion. Restricted diffusion is seen if the movement of water molecules is confined in closed spaces, such as impermeable cells wall. Those molecules experience restricted diffusion in that the molecules cannot displace farther than the confines of the cell. In hindered diffusion, the water movement of molecules is impeded however not confined within a limited space. Hindered diffusion best describes water motion in the space between densely packed cells or axons. The aim of diffusion MRI is to characterise the diffusion motion and thus infer some characteristics of the tissue non-invasively.

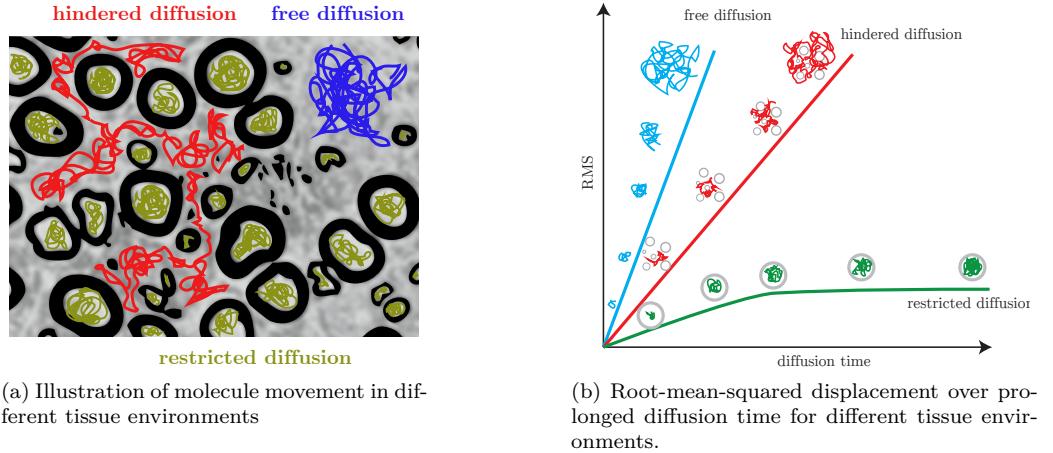


Figure 1.5: Free, hindered and restricted, diffusion patterns and root-mean-squared displacement over different diffusion times.

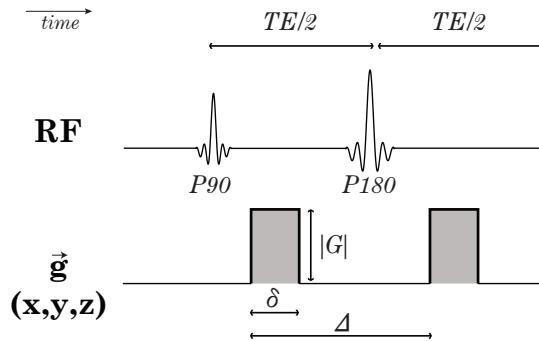
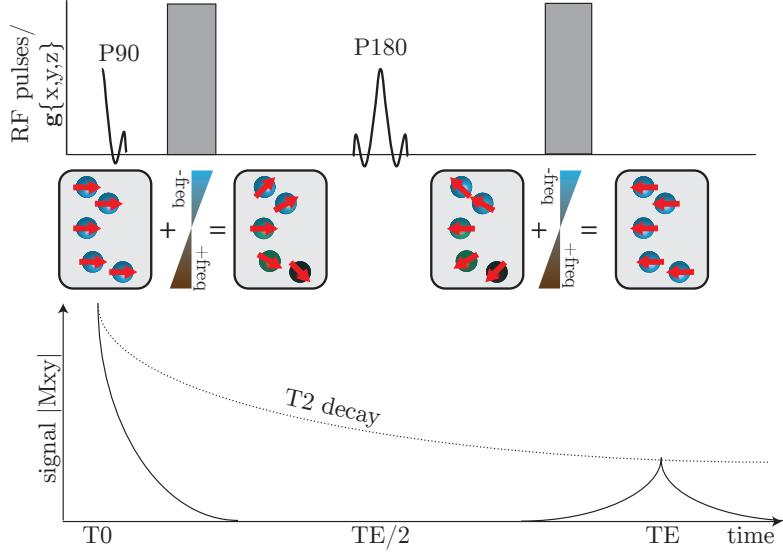


Figure 1.6: Pulse sequence diagram of PGSE sequence. Imaging and acquisition gradients are omitted for clarity.

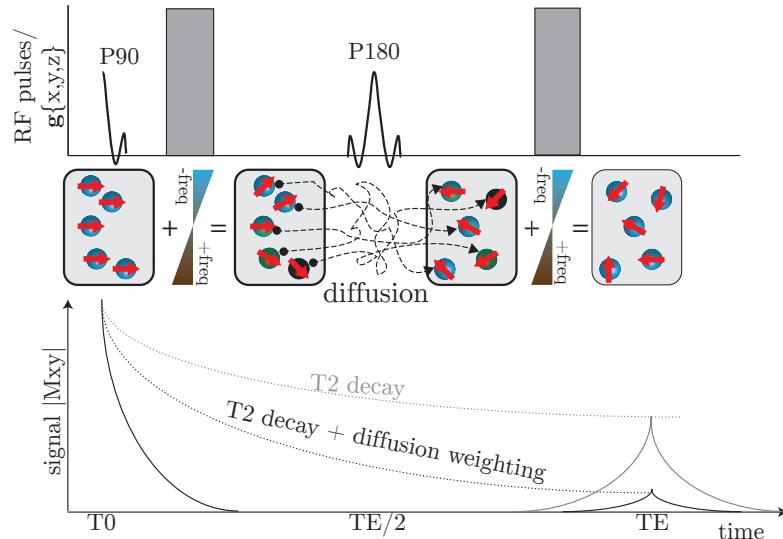
1.3.3 The Stejskal-Tanner PGSE experiment

The MRI signal can be made sensitive to the molecular motion of the water molecules within the tissue, providing contrast about the molecular motion on a voxel scale. by far the most commonly used method for diffusion MRI is the pulsed gradient spin echo (PGSE) sequence, introduced by (Stejskal & Tanner, 1965). The PGSE, presented in Figure 1.6), is based on the standard SE sequence with an additional pair of identical diffusion weighting gradients, which make the sequence sensitive to the diffusion of water molecules.

Figure 1.7 illustrates the principle of diffusion encoding using the PGSE sequence. The first diffusion gradient adds a phase offset dependent on each molecule's position. If the molecule's position doesn't change, the second diffusion gradient will reverse the phase offset (illustrated in Figure 1.7a). However, in the case of motion due to diffusion, the individual positions will differ between the first and second diffusion gradient, resulting in a reduced signal amplitude (illustrated in Figure 1.7b). The degree of signal loss is dependent on the rate



(a) Spin phase distribution in case of no molecule motion. The phase dispersion introduced by the first diffusion gradient is completely reversed by the second diffusion gradient.



(b) Spin phase distribution in case of diffusing molecules during the diffusion time Δ . Because of motion, the individual molecules experience different phase offsets at the first and second diffusion gradients. As a result, there remains some phase incoherence after the second diffusion gradient, which culminates into an attenuation of the total spin echo response.

Figure 1.7: Cartoon of the principle of diffusion encoding in the PGSE experiment. The diagrams present the spin development over the course of the sequence in the case of: (a) no diffusion or (b) diffusing molecules.

of diffusion in the tissue but is also controlled by the parameters of the PGSE sequence, namely:

- the diffusion gradient strength ($|G|$) and diffusion gradient direction (\vec{g}),
- the diffusion gradient pulse duration (δ),
- the diffusion time (Δ) between both gradient pulses.

In the literature the combination of those PGSE parameters is often summarised in terms of the diffusion weighting factor b -value (Le Bihan et al., 1986), which is defined as:

$$b = \gamma^2 |G|^2 \delta^2 \left(\Delta - \frac{\delta}{3} \right), \quad (1.6)$$

where γ is the gyromagnetic ratio. The theoretical background of the b -value formula will be explained shortly in Section 1.4.6.

1.4 Analysis of Diffusion MRI Data

Unlike T1- or T2-weighted MRI, diffusion MRI is used very little as a qualitative imaging method. Its predominant use lies in the quantification of tissue. However, this demands a systematic analysis of the acquired signal samples, especially in view of the inherently low SNR and large number of acquisition protocol parameters of diffusion MRI.

Most commonly, diffusion MRI is processed in terms of a model-based analysis, i.e. using a mathematical description of the diffusion signal that can be referred back to the tissue properties. We can break down the model-based analysis pipeline in its main building blocks:

Acquisition: The set of actual diffusion MR measurements. Any quantitative analysis of the diffusion MRI signal usually needs of many samples of different PGSE parameters, e.g. many different gradient encoding directions and/or $|G|, \delta, \Delta$ combinations. We formally define such a combined set of n singular PGSE acquisitions as a protocol (\mathcal{P}):

$$\mathcal{P} = \{(\vec{g}_1, |G|_1, \delta_1, \Delta_1), \dots, (\vec{g}_n, |G|_n, \delta_n, \Delta_n)\}, \quad (1.7)$$

or alternatively using the shortcut term b as:

$$\mathcal{P} = \{(\vec{g}_1, b_1), \dots, (\vec{g}_n, b_n)\}.$$

Several other terms are often found to describe selected properties of a acquisition protocol. A gradient scheme usually describes a set of diffusion gradient directions only without specifying PGSE pulse parameters or b -values. The term High-angular-diffusion-imaging (HARDI) describes a special case of gradient scheme with a high number diffusion directions (>60), which are uniformly sampled over the unit sphere (e.g. like Cook, Jones). A *shell* in the context of diffusion MRI refers to a protocol or subset of a protocol with several different gradient directions acquired at the same b -value.

Different analysis methods have different requirements on the acquisition protocol. While it suffices for some methods to acquire few samples of the PGSE parameter space, other methods require one or more HARDI shells with different b -values and/or many different $(\vec{g}, |G|, \delta, \Delta)$ combinations.

Diffusion model: The diffusion model is a mathematical approximation of the diffusion process. The diffusion model usually is controlled by a set of feature parameters Φ , which can be (directly or indirectly) related back to the sample environment of the diffusion process. The diffusion model is usually associated closely with a mathematical formulation $S(\Phi; \mathcal{P}_i)$ of the predicted diffusion MR signal for a given acquisition $\mathcal{P}_i \in \mathcal{P}$ and set of diffusion model parameters Φ .

Fitting: The fitting procedure links the observed signals from the acquisition to the diffusion model. The aim to infer about the tissue properties of the scanner sample. In most case, a forward-modelling approach is applied, i.e., the acquired signal is fitted to a model via the signal model $S(\Phi; \mathcal{P}_i)$ that has been determined a-priori to find the particular Φ that explains the acquired data best.

In the remainder of this section we will discuss some of the most common models and analysis methods, with particular focus on the techniques that were used in this dissertation.

1.4.1 Short gradient approximation and the q-space formalism

If we assume the diffusion gradient pulse δ sufficiently short, multiple times smaller than the diffusion time Δ , any motion of water molecules during the diffusion encoding gradient time can be neglected. In the so-called short gradient pulse (SGP) regime ($\delta \ll \Delta$), the diffusion echo attenuation S for a specific PGSE acquisition can be expressed as the integral of the net phase shifts over all water over all molecule positions (r) weighted by the conditional probability $P(r|r')$ of the molecules movement from position r to r' (Callaghan, 1991):

$$S(|G|, \delta, \Delta) = \iint P(r)P(r|r', \Delta) \exp[-i \cdot \gamma \delta |G| \cdot (r' - r)] dr' dr. \quad (1.8)$$

We can now describe ensemble molecule motion pattern over one voxel by the average diffusion probability density function (dPDF) (often referred to as the average propagator (Kärger & Heink, 1983)) as the average probability of all particles moving the distance R independent of their starting position:

$$\bar{P}(R, t) = \int P(r)P(r|R, t) dr. \quad (1.9)$$

When Equation 1.9 is substituted in the signal Equation 1.8, we obtain:

$$S(|G|, \delta, \Delta) = \int \bar{P}(R, t) \exp[-i \cdot \gamma \delta |G| \cdot R] dR, \quad (1.10)$$

If we further introduce the \mathbf{q} -value (or wavenumber) as

$$\mathbf{q} = \frac{\gamma \mathbf{G} \delta}{2\pi}, \quad (1.11)$$

the signal equation can be written as:

$$S(q, \Delta) = \int \bar{P}(R, t) \exp[2\pi i \cdot q \cdot R] dR. \quad (1.12)$$

It is easy to see that the Equation 1.12 presents a simple Fourier relationship between the signal S and the dPDF. This relationship can be exploited in q-space analysis, where the diffusion signal is measured with many different q-values at a certain fixed diffusion time. The inverse Fourier transformation of the measured signal will then directly give the dPDF without the need to impose any constraints on its shape.

1.4.2 Q-space imaging

The combination of q-space analysis with MR imaging methods is called q -space imaging (QSI)(Callaghan, 1991; Assaf & Cohen, 2000). QSI provides the full displacement probability profile in each voxel of the imaged volume. However, the visualization and quantification of the full displacement profile in each voxel is usually impracticable. Instead, it is more common to derive parameters from the dPDF that summarise the features of the displacement profile. The most widely used parameters are:

- zero displacement probability (P_0)
- full width of half maximum (FWHM)
- kurtosis (K)

Figure 1.8 illustrates the QSI analysis performed steps and gives examples of P_0 , FWHM and K parameter maps in the spinal cord.

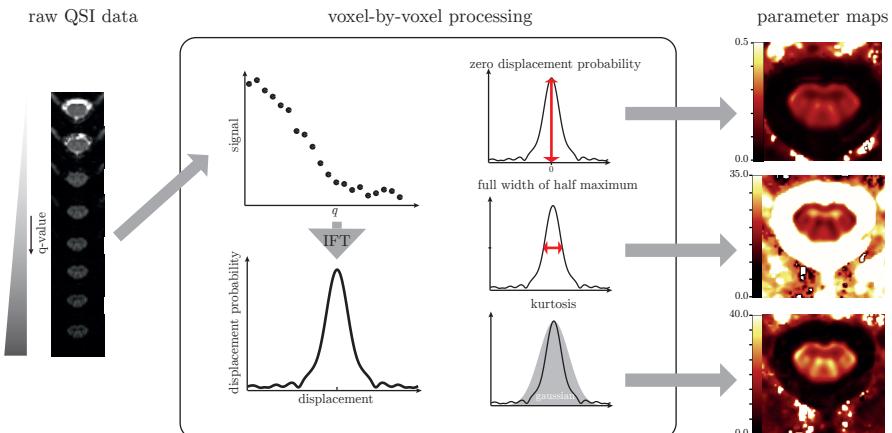


Figure 1.8: QSI analysis pipeline and example parameter maps.

The P_0 and FWHM parameter describe the height and width of the displacement profile. Generally, high P_0 and low FWHM can be interpreted as indicators of restricted diffusion; low P_0 and wide FWHM are related to more free or hindered diffusion. The FWHM is of particular theoretical interest as it can be directly related to the size of the restricted compartment in simple geometries via the autocorrelation function (Cory & Garroway, 1990; Kuchel et al., 1997). Sometimes the RMSD of Einstein's formula (see Equation 1.5) is

reported instead of FWHM. A simple conversion factor between FWHM and RMSD was suggested by Cory & Garroway (1990) as:

$$\text{RMSD} = 1.443 \cdot \text{FWHM}, \quad (1.13)$$

although the equality is only true if the diffusion profile is truly Gaussian.

The kurtosis parameter, here defined as the excess kurtosis (Kenney & Keeping, 1957), describes how much a distribution differs from the normal distribution. Kurtosis is defined as the standardised fourth central moment of a distribution minus 3 (to make the kurtosis of the normal distribution equal to zero). For a finite sample of n datapoints the kurtosis K is computed as:

$$K = \frac{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^4}{\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2\right)^2} - 3 \quad (1.14)$$

with \bar{x} being the sample mean. A high kurtosis distribution has a narrower peak and long, fat tail compared to a normal distribution. A low kurtosis distribution has a more rounded peak and a shorter, thinner tail. In the context of diffusion analysis, the kurtosis parameter can be used to quantify how much the dPDF differs from a Gaussian displacement distribution (Jensen & Helpern, 2010). High K values can therefore be interpreted as an indicator of restricted diffusion in a sample.

Limitations of QSI

QSI parameters measured in nervous tissue are often interpreted as a direct indicator of axonal architecture, such as the mean axon diameter (MAD). Early studies have demonstrated that q-space analysis can indeed provide exact estimates of the geometry in simple samples, e.g. yeast cells (Cory & Garroway, 1990) or blood cells (Kuchel et al., 1997). However, experiments on real nervous tissue have shown that the interpretation of q-space parameters in axonal tissue is more complicated (King et al., 1994; Assaf & Cohen, 2000; Assaf et al., 2000; Bar-Shir et al., 2008). Assaf and Cohen were first to demonstrate that the displacement profile of nervous can be expressed as a combination of at least two compartments exhibiting hindered and restricted diffusion. A recent study of QSI in the in-vivo human brain by Nilsson et al. (2009) confirmed that the FWHM perpendicular to white matter fibres did not change with diffusion time. Parallel FWHM increased linearly with the square root of diffusion time, restricted and hindered diffusion, respectively, as expected (see Figure 1.5). The two compartments are often attributed to intra-cellular (IC) and extra-cellular (EC) water, although there is an ongoing debate over the interpretation of these results (see e.g. (Kiselev & Il'yasov, 2007; Mulkern et al., 2009)).

Since q-space analysis provides the average displacement probability over the whole voxel, the q-space measurement is affected by both IC and EC compartments as well as by the amount of exchange between the two. As a result, the dPDF may be broader than the actual MAD would suggest, due to the addition of displacements from hindered diffusion in the EC compartments. Other factors such as the distribution of sizes and variety of shapes further complicate the interpretation of q-space parameters to infer the real axon diameter distributions.

1.4.3 Apparent diffusion coefficient

In the absence of any diffusion impeding barriers, the dPDF takes the form of a simple Gaussian probability distribution, which is only dependent on the diffusion time t and the diffusion coefficient d :

$$P(\mathbf{r}_0, \mathbf{r}, \Delta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(4\pi dt)^3}} \exp\left(-\frac{|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_0|^2}{4dt}\right). \quad (1.15)$$

This closed form solution for the dPDF can be substituted in the general q-space formalism given in Equation 1.12, simplifying it to:

$$S(s_0, d; \delta, \Delta, G) = s_0 \cdot \exp(-(2\pi\gamma\delta)^2 \Delta \cdot d), \quad (1.16)$$

with model parameters being the diffusion coefficient d and the baseline signal s_0 , i.e., the non-diffusion weighted T2w signal. It is often more convenient to rewrite above equation terms of the b-value as:

$$S(s_0, d; b) = s_0 \cdot \exp(-b \cdot d), \quad (1.17)$$

with $b \approx -(2\pi\gamma\delta)^2 \Delta$ under the SGP assumption of $\delta \ll \Delta$.

In true free diffusion, d is simply the diffusion coefficient of the medium and the signal equation above is exact. However, in real biological tissue, virtually all molecules will have interacted with their environment within the timescale of a typical diffusion MR experiment. In this case the above expression is just an approximation of the underlying true dPDF and d above is not only related to the diffusivity of the medium but also informs about the diffusion impedance caused by molecules interacting with the environment. To highlight the difference to the classical definition of the diffusion coefficient, we refer to d as the apparent diffusion coefficient (ADC).

The model parameters s_0 and the ADC are tissue dependent and can be estimated by acquiring a minimum of two diffusion weighted images with different b -values (usually $b = 0$ and $b = 800 - 1200 \text{mm}/\text{s}^2$ for in-vivo nervous tissue). Typically a simple log-transformation of Equation 1.17 is used to obtain a linear equation:

$$\log(S(s_0, \text{ADC}; \mathcal{P}_i)) = \log(s_0) - (b \cdot \text{ADC}), \quad (1.18)$$

for each measurement \mathcal{P}_i of the acquisition \mathcal{P} . The linear equation system can then solved efficiently, e.g. using a least squares approach, to obtain maps of s_0 and ADC values.

1.4.4 Diffusion Tensor

In ordered tissue like white matter the diffusion will be directional, i.e., the ADC will depend on the direction \vec{g} of the applied gradient. In order to reflect the directionality, Equation 1.18 can be extended from the scalar representation of the diffusion coefficient d to reflect the complete 3-dimensional diffusion covariance matrix (Basser et al., 1994), obtaining the the Diffusion Tensor (DT) formulation:

$$S(b, \vec{G}) = S_0 \exp(-b\vec{g}^T \mathbf{D}\vec{g}) \text{ with } \mathbf{D} = \begin{bmatrix} d_{xx} & d_{xy} & d_{xz} \\ d_{xy} & d_{yy} & d_{yz} \\ d_{xz} & d_{yz} & d_{zz} \end{bmatrix}. \quad (1.19)$$

As before, the parameters of this DT model are the s_0 non-diffusion weighted signal baseline and the diffusivity D , now being a positive symmetric 3×3 co-variance matrix. The parameters can be estimated in a similar fashion to the ADC model using the log-transformation of the signal and a system of linear equations. In addition to the ADC model, the accurate estimation of all the directional *DT* components requires a minimum of 6 different diffusion weighted measurements with non-coplanar gradient directions. However, we usually acquire more signals to overdetermine the solution, add noise control and increase directional resolution (Jones & Basser, 2004).

By an Eigen decomposition of the DT we obtain the three eigenvectors $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \vec{v}_3$ and their corresponding eigenvalues $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \lambda_3$. The first eigenvector can be interpreted as the principal diffusion directions with λ_1 being the principal diffusivity. Usually λ_1 is also referred to as the axial diffusivity (AD) as it corresponds with the diffusivity parallel to white matter axons (Basser & Pierpaoli, 1996). Other commonly used DTmetrics are:

- The mean diffusivity (MD), computed as:

$$MD = \frac{\text{Tr}(D)}{3} = \frac{\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \lambda_3}{3}. \quad (1.20)$$

- The fractional anisotropy (FA) that represents the degree of diffusion anisotropy in each voxel. FA increases with directional dependence of particle displacements and is greatest when diffusion is highly directed. FA is computed by

$$FA = \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}} \frac{\sqrt{(\lambda_1 - MD)^2 + (\lambda_2 - MD)^2 + (\lambda_3 - MD)^2}}{\sqrt{\lambda_1^2 + \lambda_2^2 + \lambda_3^2}} \quad (1.21)$$

- The radial diffusivity (RD) is the average diffusivity perpendicular to the major diffusion direction:

$$RD = \frac{\lambda_2 + \lambda_3}{2}. \quad (1.22)$$

1.4.5 Limitations of the SGP approximation

Unlike modern NMR spectrometers and pre-clinical small bore scanners, most clinical MRI systems are only equipped with limited maximal gradient strength (usually 40-60 mT/m). On these systems the necessary high q-values, e.g., needed for q-space analysis cannot be achieved without prolonged diffusion gradient pulse durations. (Mitra, 1995) showed that the effective molecule displacement measured with a finite diffusion pulse δ is equivalent to the distance between the centre-of-mass (COM) of the molecule trajectories occurring while the diffusion gradients are applied. If the SGP condition $\delta \ll \Delta$ is fulfilled, the observed distance between the COMs of the trajectories is approximately the same as the true displacement of the molecule. However, if δ is long, molecules movement will occur during the diffusion gradient pulses and only the displacement between the COMs will be observed. As illustrated in Figure 1.9, in the case of restricted diffusion, this increase in gradient pulse duration will cause the underestimation of the true displacement. When implementing QSI protocols on a clinical scanner, one has to be wary of the effect of the finite gradient

pulse duration and its implications. Usually, clinical studies of QSI have to violate the SGP condition to achieve sufficiently high q-values. As expected from the COM effect, this causes an artifactual reduction of the RMSD. This has been confirmed in simulation (Linse & Soderman, 1995; Lätt et al., 2007b) and various experimental studies in phantoms (Avram et al., 2004; Lätt et al., 2007a), excised tissue (Malmborg et al., 2006; Bar-Shir et al., 2008) and even in in-vivo human scans (Nilsson et al., 2009). As a consequence, the estimated displacement profile has to be interpreted with caution as it will not reflect the true displacement in the tissue. The SGP violation is a fundamental problem in the above models and can only be avoided with an increase of the maximum gradient strength.

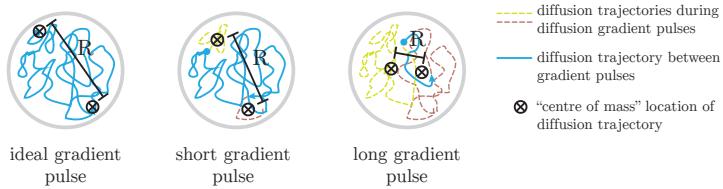


Figure 1.9: Illustration of the centre-of-mass effect on the apparent molecules displacement for different gradient pulse durations.

Some experimental clinical scanners are already equipped with gradients systems capable of generating up to 300mT/m (Toga et al., 2012). However, those dedicated system are designed for a specific research project and the general availability of those strong whole body gradients in the future is doubtful due to their high costs. Economic feasibility aside, the use of higher gradient strengths and shorter pulse width also increases the risk of peripheral nerve stimulation (PNS) and might cause more discomfort for the subjects.

1.4.6 Gaussian phase approximation

As discussed above, the SGP approximation is often impossible to fulfil on typical clinical scanners. An alternative model of the diffusion process is given by the Gaussian phase distribution (GPD). In contrast to the SGP, the GPD offers a description of the diffusion MR signal in the presence of finite δ under the assumption that the phases of the spins due to the magnetic field gradients are Gaussian distributed.

In the SGP approximation we use the probability density function of spin displacements, whereas the GPD approximation considers the distribution function of spin phases $P(\phi, \Delta)$ at the echo time TE having phase ϕ . The total signal in terms of $P(\phi, \Delta)$ is

$$S(\delta, \Delta, \mathbf{G}) = \int P(\phi, \Delta) \cos \phi d\phi. \quad (1.23)$$

For molecules undergoing free diffusion, characterised by a single diffusion coefficient d , P is Gaussian so that the signal is

$$S(\delta, \Delta, \mathbf{G}) = \exp \left(-\gamma^2 |\mathbf{G}|^2 \delta^2 (\Delta - \delta/3)d \right). \quad (1.24)$$

This equation provides the theoretical underpinning of the definition of the popular b -value introduced in Equation 1.6. Please note in the case of free diffusion the SGP approximation becomes a special case of the GPD approximation:

$$S(\delta, \Delta, \mathbf{G}) = S_0 \exp(-\gamma^2 |\mathbf{G}|^2 \delta^2 (\Delta - \delta/3) D) \quad (1.25)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow S(\delta, \Delta, \mathbf{G}) = S_0 \exp(-\gamma^2 |\mathbf{G}|^2 \delta^2 \Delta D) \quad \text{if } \frac{\delta}{\Delta} \rightarrow 0 \quad (1.26)$$

1.4.7 Models of restriction

The above analytic models are all based on the assumption that the diffusion pattern can be described well with a diffusion process. However, many studies have shown that those models inadequately describe restricted diffusion, which is observed, e.g. in coherent white matter tracts. Over the years, various analytic solutions have presented for simple restricting geometries such spheres, parallel planes under either SGP or GPD approximation (Balinov et al., 1993; Linse & Soderman, 1995; Callaghan, 1996).

The cylinder geometry is particularly well suited to approximate of diffusion within myelinated axons, where diffusion is mainly restricted perpendicular and unrestricted parallel to the myelin barriers. We present here the analytic solutions for the diffusion MR signal in cylinders from PGSE with finite gradient pulses (Stepišnik, 1993). The equation for the signal from particles diffusing within the cylinder of radius R is

$$\ln S = -2\gamma^2 \mathbf{G}^2 \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{2da_m^2 \delta - 2 + 2e^{-da_m^2 \delta} + 2e^{-da_m^2 \Delta} - e^{-da_m^2 (\Delta-\delta)} - e^{-da_m^2 (\Delta+\delta)}}{d^2 a_m^6 (R^2 a_m^2 - 1)} \quad (1.27)$$

where a_m is the m th root of equation $J'_1(a_m R) = 0$ and J'_1 is the derivative of the Bessel function of the first kind, order one. Please note that in the literature this model might also be attributed to Vangelderden et al. (1994).

1.4.8 Compartment models

Using a-priori information about the microstructure of the investigated sample, the diffusion signal can be approximated by a combination of these simple geometric compartments. Each of the n different compartments possesses the model parameters Φ_i from which the signal S_i is computed. Each compartment is assigned a volume fraction f_i with $0 \leq f_i \leq 1$ for all $1 \leq i \leq n$. For an acquisition protocol \mathcal{P} , the signal model under the combined model parameter set $\Phi = \Phi_1 \cup \dots \cup \Phi_n$ is then given by:

$$S(\Phi; \mathcal{P}) = \sum_{i=0}^n f_i \cdot S_i(\phi_i; \mathcal{P}). \quad (1.28)$$

Bi-exponential model

One of the simplest compartment models is the bi-exponential model, expressing diffusion as the summation of two separate mono-exponential decay curves (see Equation 1.18) with two different diffusion coefficients (usually named ADC_{slow}

and ADC_{fast}):

$$S_{biexp}(b) = f_{slow} \exp(-b \cdot \text{ADC}_{slow}) + f_{fast} \exp(-b \cdot \text{ADC}_{fast}). \quad (1.29)$$

Experiments by Clark et al. (2002) in in-vivo brain data demonstrate good agreement between measurements and fitted signal curves over a range of b -values. However, the biophysical interpretation of the two compartments is still in debate and the relation between the compartments and the microstructural properties of white matter remains unclear.

Geometric multi-compartment models of nervous tissue

Stanisz' model Stanisz et al. (1997) were the first to propose a model that reflects the underlying micro-anatomy of nervous tissue. They introduced a model of restricted diffusion in bovine optic nerve using a three-compartment model. In their model, prolate ellipsoids represented axons, glial cells are represented by spheres represented and Gaussian diffusion was assumed in a homogeneous extra-cellular medium surrounded by partially permeable membranes. Experimental data was in agreement with the signal predicted by their model and showed significant departure of the Diffusion Weighted Imaging (DWI) signal from the simple Gaussian model. However, the complexity of this models requires very high quality measurements, typically only achievable in NMR spectroscopy rather than MRI.

The CHARMED model Recently, Assaf & Basser (2005) developed the CHARMED model of cylindrical axons with gamma distributed radii to estimate axon diameter distributions in white matter tissue. The CHARMED model assumes two compartments, representing diffusion in intra-axonal and extra-axonal space. The intra-axonal compartment is modeled by parallel cylinders, with the size of radii following a gamma-distribution. The extra-cellular compartment is modeled by a DT with the principal diffusion direction \vec{v}_1 aligned with the long cylinder axis. Alexander (2008) validated the model in in-vitro optic and sciatic nerve samples and estimated parameters show good correlation with corresponding histology. In later work, Barazany et al. (2009) extended the CHARMED model by an isotropic diffusion compartment to account for partial volume effects and contributions from areas of CSF. They apply their model to image axon size distributions in the corpus callosum of live rat brain. However, in both experiments, scan times are long and the high 7T magnetic field and maximum $|G|$ (400 mT/m) are impossible to achieve on a live human scanners, typically operating at 1.5-3T with maximum $|G|$ between 30-60 mT/m.

Alexander's minimal model of white matter diffusion Alexander et al. (2010) uses a simplified CHARMED model to demonstrate measurements of axon diameter and density in excised monkey brain and live human brain on a standard clinical scanner with multi shell HARDI. The minimal model of white matter diffusion (MMWDM) expresses diffusion in a white matter voxel as a combination of water particles trapped inside three different compartments:

1. Intra-axonal water experiencing diffusion restricted inside cylindrical axons with equal radius R as developed by Vangelderden et al. (1994)

2. Extra-axonal water that is hindered due to the presence of adjacent axons. Diffusion is approximated by a diffusion tensor, with parallel diffusion coefficient d_{\parallel} in the direction of the cylinders and symmetric diffusion d_{\perp} in the perpendicular directions.
3. Water that experiences unhindered diffusion, e.g., in the CSF, modeled by an isotropic Gaussian distribution of displacements with diffusion coefficient d_I .
4. Non-diffusing water, e.g., trapped in membranes (no parameters).

To reduce the number of free model parameters in this model is reduced by expressing d_{\perp} using the tortuosity formulation of Szafer et al. (1995).

1.4.9 Active Imaging

More complex models usually require DWI acquisitions with several different diffusion weightings at various diffusion times. For example Barazany et al. (2009) perform approx. 900 different combinations of $0 \leq |G| \leq 0.3mT$, $0 \leq \delta \leq 0.03ms$ and $0 \leq \Delta \leq 0.30ms$ to estimate the axon diameter distribution of live rat brain. This extensive sampling of the PGSE parameter space requires long acquisition times (between hours and days) and is infeasible for in-vivo clinical scanning.

The principle of the “Active Imaging” protocol optimisation framework of Alexander (2008) is to find the protocol \mathcal{P} , that allows the most accurate estimation of the tissue model parameters under given hardware and time constraints. The Fisher information matrix (FIM) provides a lower bound on the inverse covariance matrix of parameter estimates, i.e., the \mathcal{P} that maximizes the FIM will maximize the precision of those estimates. He uses the d-optimality criterion (O’Brien & Funk, 2003), which is defined as the determinant of the inverse FIM of protocol \mathcal{P} and tissue model parameters ϕ :

$$D(\phi, \mathcal{P}) = \det[(\mathbf{J}^T \Omega \mathbf{J})^{-1}], \quad (1.30)$$

where \mathbf{J} is the $N \times \text{size}(\phi)$ Jacobian matrix with the $ijst$ element $\partial S(\vec{g}_i, \delta_i, \Delta_i) / \partial \phi_j$. In the original approach $\Omega = \text{diag}\{1, \dots, 1\}$. Alexander (2008) uses a stochastic optimization algorithm (Zelinka, 2010) that returns \mathcal{P}' with minimal d among all possible \mathcal{P} with respect to the given scanner hardware limits.

The optimisation framework was used in Alexander et al. (2010) to estimate the parameters of the MMWDM, described in section 1.4.8 using a standard clinical Philips 3T scanner with maximum $|G|$ of $60mT/m$ and a maximum scan time of one hour (total number of acquisitions $N = 360$). To achieve estimates independent of fibre orientation, the N acquisition are divided in M sets of different PGSE settings with gradient directions in each set being fixed and uniformly distributed over the sphere as in Jones & Basser (2004). They performed in-vivo scans of the corpus callosum and compared their axon diameter and density indices with high resolution scans of ex-vivo monkey brain and previously published histology studies. They found that the trends in diameter and density agreed with both ex-vivo scans and histology, although the axon diameter was over-estimated. This is mainly an effect of limited gradient strength as has been shown in Dyrby et al. (2010).

1.5 Summary

We have discussed ways of inferring microstructural information from DWI , ranging from simple methods such as ADC or Diffusion Tensor Imaging (DTI) to sophisticated multi-compartment modelling. ADC and DTI are easy to obtain but the simplistic underlying assumptions of Gaussian displacement probability density function (DPDF) is often inaccurate. As a result, different microstructural changed pathologies can have the same effect on those metrics and therefore cannot be told apart by DTI alone. At least in theory, QSI has the potential to overcome this limitation but requires both very strong diffusion gradients and long acquisition times. Furthermore, QSI derived parameters DPDF measures only relates indirectly to white matter structure and must be carefully interpreted if the SGP is violated.

Using more advanced diffusion models, incorporating anatomical a-priori information about the different compartments of the investigated tissue can overcome the limitations of the simplistic DTI model but at the same time allows more flexibility than QSI. However, in-vivo scans are limited in maximum scan time and hardware capabilities. Under these conditions, finding the optimal set of acquisition parameters is not trivial. The optimisation framework of Alexander can be used to find the DWI protocol that is best suited to estimate the model parameters of interest while it respects the limitations of the clinical setup.

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